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COMPARABLE WORTH IN STATE GOVERNMENT

BY

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Comparable Worth in State Goverment

Report to the Fifty-First Legislature

by
State Personnel Division
Department of Administration

January 1989

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This report on the status of the standard of Comparable Worth in Montana State Government is being submitted to the Fifty-first Legislature in compliance with 2-18-209, MCA. The report was developed by the staff of the Department of Administration. State Personnel Division, Room 130, Sam W. Mitchell Building in Helena. Staff members may be contacted by phone at 444-3871.

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COMPARABLE WORTH IN MONTANA STATE GOVERNMENT

INTRODUCTION

In 1983, the Montana State Legislature affirmed its commitment to equitable pay practices in state government by enacting the "comparable worth statute." This law requires the Department of Administration, "in its efforts to enhance the current classification plan and pay schedules, [to] work toward the goal of establishing a standard of equal pay for comparable worth" (2-18-208, MCA). In addition, the Department is required to report the status of the study of the comparable worth standard to the Legislature, and to make recommendations to the Legislature "as to what impediments exist to meeting this standard" (2-18-209, MCA). This is the third such report.

When Montana's comparable worth law was first passed, the notion of "comparable worth" pay systems was not widely understood. Montana, like other large employers, had a job classification system in place for setting pay. A study of comparable worth subsequently revealed that the statewide classification and pay system essentially already meets the standard of comparable worth for 92% of the state's employees. Montana's classification method is outdated by industry standards, since it is not a point factoring method. But in other respects our classification system achieves comparable worth.

Comparable Worth - A Definition

Comparable worth is defined as equal pay for jobs that are of equivalent overall value to a given employer regardless of the relative salaries such jobs receive in the surrounding labor market. Under this definition, comparable worth assures that the salaries of jobs are not based on the sex or race of employees in those jobs. Instead, they are based on the job characteristics the employing organization considers to be of greatest value. This concept differs from the concept of equal pay for equal work, which requires equal compensation for jobs that are essentially identical.

A primary concern for a comparable worth approach is job evaluation. Job evaluation in its simplest form is the process used by an employer to evaluate and measure jobs to establish relative job worth. To measure comparable worth it is necessary to use a bias-free job evaluation method that measures job content and can be applied consistently to all jobs. A "point-factoring" job evaluation method is the job evaluation method of choice.[1] With point factoring, jobs are give points to reflect strength or weakness in each of several predefined factors (e.g., skill, effort, responsibility). The points are totaled and a hierarchy of jobs is achieved according to how many points the jobs receive. Pay is then based on these job evaluation points.

The job evaluation method associated with Montana's classification system is not a point-factoring method. The job evaluation method we use for positions in the Statewide Classification system is a factor guided comparison and ranking method. Since there are no point totals produced from the job evaluation process, measuring and illustrating the success of meeting the comparable worth standard is difficult. Demonstrating the relationship between job content and pay is easiest when the evaluation system is quantified and point totals are converted to pay grades. (If a male dominant job received the same point totals as a female dominant job, but was placed in a higher pay grade, this would be an indication of disparate treatment of females.)

However, there are ways of determining whether disparate practices affect the pay of state employees. One way is to compare the average salaries earned by minorities and/or females to those earned by white males. The difference, if any, in pay is called "the wage gap." A wage gap is acceptable as long as the same objective, consistent pay practices apply to all employees, regardless of their race, sex, or other personal, non job-related characteristics. Any portion of the wage gap that can't be explained as stemming from legitimate operation of the pay plan may indicate discriminatory practices.

Based on traditional employment patterns, some wage gap can be expected because of job segregation -- the crowding of females and/or minorities into relatively low-skill jobs. Even in a comparable worth system, if females hold jobs that are less difficult and responsible than those held by males, their average salaries will be lower. Another "legitimate" component of the wage gap is longevity, or differences in earnings that result from one group having spent more years in state government service.

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[1] Helen Remick, "Major Issues in A-priori Applications," Comparable Worth and Wage Discrimination, Temple University Press, (Philadelphia: 1984), p. 99.

Employees Included in this Comparable Worth Study

Too few members of any racial minority are employed in Montana state government to study how positions they hold are classified or paid. No class is dominated by a racial minority. For this comparable worth study, only the differences between male and female salaries is considered.

This report includes the 8,517 employees who hold full time positions in executive branch agencies, excluding the university system. Data for the report was extracted from the Personnel/Payroll/Position Control data base in November, 1988.

Employees of the legislative and judicial branches of state government, employees who were appointed to exempt personal staff positions, and other exempt officers and employees described in 2-18-203, M.C.A. are not considered in this report, nor are seasonal, temporary, intermittent, or part-time employees.

Format of the Report

Part 1 of this report provides information about the current gap between what the male and female employees described above earn. It compares this wage gap to those described in the 1985 and 1987 Comparable Worth Reports.

Part 1 also compares the salaries in Montana state government for illustrative male and female dominant classes to the salaries neighboring states pay for the same classes. These comparisons confirm the fact that Montana state government meets a standard of equal pay for work of equal value as well as states that have implemented comparable worth adjustments.

Part 2 of the report discusses some actions that have served to reduce the difference in male and female salaries, and identifies impediments to meeting the standard of comparable worth among all employees.

Part 3 are the conclusions and recommendations.

PART 1: THE WAGE GAP

The average salary for females in this report's study group is $17,989 while the average male salary is $23,026 -- for a raw wage gap of 22%. As shown on Table 1 on the following page, the disparity between the average pay of female/male workers included in the study has decreased by approximately 3% since the first comparable worth report was presented to the Legislature in 1985.

In FY85 the average grade for females was 9.6. In FY89, the average is 10.2. In FY85 the average grade for males was 12.7. In FY89 it's 12.8. These changes, along with the decreasing wage gap, are the result of changes in employee demographics.

There were 134 fewer full-time, permanent female employees in the 1988 study, with most of the reductions occurring in lower-pay positions. There were 171 fewer male employees, with most of the reductions occurring in the Blue Collar Plan where average salaries are comparatively higher.

Nationwide, figures for female earnings as a percent of male earnings range from a low of 53% to a high of 74% depending on the occupation studied and on the age and race of the workers. Montana appears to be in a somewhat better position with regard female/male pay disparity than is the nationwide trend, but in order to determine whether gender bias affects state employees' pay, the components of the wage gap must be examined.

Components of the Wage Gap

Employees covered by the Statewide Classification and Pay Schedule receive compensation for "responsibilities assumed" and "complexity of work" performed (or job content) as authorized in 2-18-202, MCA. They receive compensation for length of service (longevity) as authorized in 2-18-304, MCA, as well as in the pay matrices. While there is a provision that allows the Department of Administration to grant exceptions to the general pay schedule to mitigate recruitment and retention problems or other exceptional circumstances, the overall compensation plan doesn't include an external labor market component.

Under the Statewide Schedule, which covers 92% of non-exempt executive branch employees, just the two components -- job content and longevity -- determine the pay an employee receives. Any difference in earnings between male and female

TABLE 1

Average Male/Female Salary Differences by Pay Plan
Permanent, Full-Time Positions - Excluding the University System

	Male			Female		
	FY85	FY87	FY89	FY85	FY87	FY89
All Employees:						
No. of Employees	4,953	4,812	4,782	3,869	3,747	3,735
Average salary	$22,300	$23,088	$23,026	$16,797	$17,810	$17,989
	Female salary as % of male salary: 1985 - 75% 1986 - 77% 1988 - 78%					
Statewide Plan:						
No. of Employees	4,163	4,147	4,127	3,740	3,669	3,668
Average grade	12.7	12.7	12.8	9.6	9.9	10.2
Average salary	$22,494	$23,235	$23,160	$16,750	$17,771	$17,593
	Female salary as % of male salary: 1985 - 74% 1986 - 77% 1988 - 77.5%					
Blue Collar:						
No. of Employees	704	613	606	13	13	16
Average Salary	$20,998	$21,734	$21,822	$18,952	$20,345	$20,095
	Female salary as % of male salary: 1985 - 90% 1986 - 94% 1988 - 92%					
Retail Clerks:						
No. of Employees	44	13	13	74	27	17
Average Salary	$16,644	$18,597	$18,018	$16,510	$17,682	$18,189
	Female salary as % of male salary: 1985 - 99% 1986 - 95% 1988 - 101%					
Physicians:						
No. of Employees	9	7	7	2	2	1
Average salary	$59,446	$64,447	$64,293	$61,723	$62,818	$76,209
	Female salary as % of male salary: 1985 - 104% 1986 - 96% 1988 - 119%					
Teachers:						
No. of Employees	33	32	29	38	36	33
Average salary	$21,700	$22,948	$21,382	$20,741	$20,941	$19,103
	Female salary as % of male salary: 1985 - 96% 1986 - 91% 1988 - 89%					

R9.T1-CLASS

employees should stem from differences in the responsibilities and complexities of their jobs, or differences in length of service.

a. Male/Female Differences in Length of Service

Among employees covered by the Statewide Classification and Pay Plan, males earn more longevity pay than females. This is consistent with nationwide data which indicates that females are more likely to have breaks in service for childrearing or to follow husbands who transfer work locations.[2] The matrix for the Statewide Schedule consists of 25 grades, or pay ranges, which are based on job content and 13 steps, or incremental advancements within the pay range, which are based on length of service. If differences in length of service are taken out (all employees paid at the Step 5 rate for their grade), the average female salary is $17,410 and the average male salary $21,458. Corrected for effects of longevity pay, the wage gap is 19%. Stated differently, the difference in longevity accounts for about 3% of the raw wage gap.

b. Male/Female Differences in Job Content

The relationship between what a job requires in terms of skill, effort, responsibility, and working conditions and what it pays should be the same for all employees, regardless of their gender. If it can be shown that differences in male/female salaries stem from objectively measured differences in the jobs they hold, then a wage gap is legitimate. As referred to in the introduction, comparable worth should be measured by a "the application of a single, bias-free point factor job evaluation system within a given establishment, across job families, both to rank-order jobs and to set salaries."[3]

---

[2] Single, never-married males and females exhibit the smallest lifetime earnings differential and have the most similar lifetime labor force participation. The widest differential in lifetime earnings and lifetime labor force participation exists between married, spouse-present males and females. (Source cited below.)

Beller, Andrea H., "Occupational Segregation and the Earnings Gap," Comparable Worth: Issue for the 80's, A Consultation of the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, Volume 1, (Washington, D.C.: 1984) p. 42.

[3] Remick, *op. cit.*

Montana lacks the sophisticated kind of job evaluation system that would provide the capability of comparing individual positions to each other in quantified terms. In a point-factoring system such as the one referred to above, it would be possible to compare an Administrative Secretary I (a female dominant class) to a Correctional Officer II (a male dominant class) in terms of how many points each received for each job content factor (such as skill, effort, responsibility, and working conditions). Total point scores would convert to grades, or pay ranges. The relationship between job content and pay would be readily apparent, and it could be shown that the same standards were applied without regard for gender.

Lacking this type of technically efficient tool to demonstrate the relationship between job content and pay in Montana state government, another approach must be taken.

A discussion of male/female differences in job content can't be separated from a discussion of job segregation. Certain occupations are gender-dominant. For example, nursing is a traditionally female-dominant occupation while civil engineering is traditionally male-dominant. Other occupations, such as teaching, have a more even representation of both males and females.

Also, males tend to dominate occupations that pay better than those dominated by females. Whether this is a result of (1) males exerting their historically more powerful role to negotiate higher wages; (2) societal conditioning that values what men do more than what women do; or (3) females being channeled into narrow occupational choices and forcing wages down by creating a surplus of workers in those occupations, -- or any combination of the above (as well as other complex factors) -- is beyond the scope of this report. Job segregation exists in Montana state government, and this affects the wage gap. The reasons for its existence are often discussed in conjunction with the "comparable worth issue" but for this report, the issue is narrowed to what the law requires: that (1) judgments and factors that contain inherent biases based on sex be eliminated in the classification of positions and (2) that factors for determining job worth be compared across occupational groups when either is gender-dominant.[4] How this is done, and how its success can be measured, is discussed in the following section.

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[4] 2-18-209, M.C.A.

Analysis of Occupational Categories

Occupations can be grouped into categories according to the type of work that is performed and the knowledges and skills that are required. These categories are Administrators/Officials, Professionals, Technicians, Protective Services, Skilled Crafts, Paraprofessionals, Clerical, and Service/ Maintenance.

If only preliminary job analysis had been conducted -- that required to determine which occupational category a job belonged with -- a 14% wage gap would exist. As shown on Table 2 on the following page, the only occupational categories that are predominantly female are Paraprofessionals and Clerical.

Table 2 illustrates hypothetically the effects of occupational segregation on the wage gap. On this table, the actual total number of employees in each occupational category is shown in Column One. Column Two shows the actual total salaries (taken from the Personnel/Payroll/Position Control data base) for that occupational category as of November, 1988. Column Three indicates the percentage of Column One employees who are female (i.e., there are 639 employees in the Administrator/Officials category, 116 - or 18% - of whom are female). Column Four shows what the female portion of the total (Column Two) salary should be based on the percentage of employees who are female. Column Five shows the percentage of the category who are male, and the Column Six shows what their portion should be.

This table indicates that if only the broadest analysis of jobs is made -- that required to assign them to one of eight occupational categories -- the average female salary would be $18,017 while the average male salary would be $20,919. This is a wage gap of 14% resulting from male/female differences in occupational category.

In practice, job evaluation under the Classification System involves many more discrete judgments than are implied by this example. Within each occupational category there are a number of classes, each of which is distinguished by a unique title and by written standards that describe the content of jobs appropriately included in the class. The classifier not only makes a decision about the occupational category, but goes on to determine which class within the category is appropriate.

TABLE 2

Hypothetical Portioning of Salaries by Occupational Category for Statewide Classification and Pay Schedule*

* excludes University System

Occupational Category	1 Total # Employees	2 Total $ Paid	3 Percent Female	4 Female Share of $	5 Percent Male	6 Male Share of $
Administrators/Officials	639	19,181,994	18%	3,452,759	82%	15,729,235
Professionals	2,656	59,186,082	38%	22,490,711	62%	36,695,371
Technicians	1,738	31,546,417	53%	16,719,601	47%	14,826,816
Protective Service	590	10,896,629	10%	1,089,663	90%	9,806,966
Skilled Craft	72	1,400,953	22%	308,210	78%	1,092,743
Paraprofessionals	627	9,093,503	60%	5,456,102	40%	3,637,401
Clericals	1,122	16,014,106	92%	14,732,978	8%	1,281,128
Service/Maintenance	351	5,099,910	36%	1,835,968	64%	3,263,942
	7,795	152,419,594	(# female) (3,668)	66,085,992	(# Male) (4,127)	86,333,602

average female salary = 18,017

average male salary = 20,919

Female salary as % of male salary = 86%

Wage Gap = 14%

R9.T2-CLASS

Below, the number of classes in each occupational category is listed along with the approximate range of grades.

Occupational Category	# of Classes	Approximate Grade Range
Administrators/Officials	181	16 - 24
Professionals	629	11 - 16
Technicians	328	9 - 12
Protective Services	34	6 - 15
Paraprofessional	80	7 - 12
Clerical	115	4 - 12
Skilled Craft	129	8 - 12
Service/Maintenance	108	4 - 11

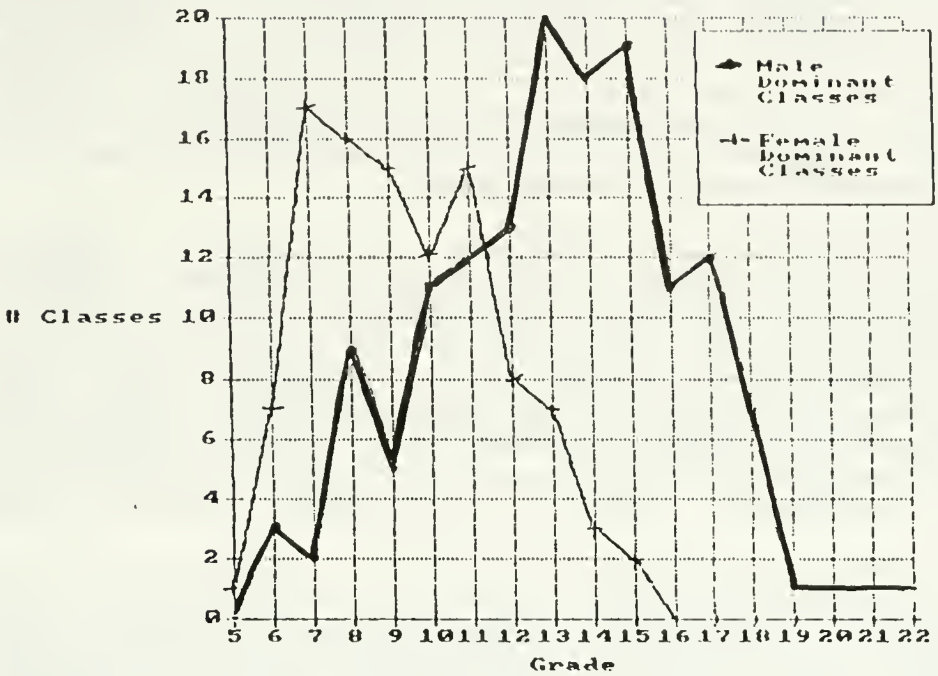
Classes are assigned to pay grades based on comparisons with other classes, so that equal pay for work of comparable difficulty and responsibility does occur. Custodian II (a Service/Maintenance class) might be compared to Accounting Clerk II and III (Clerical classes) and to Baker I and II (Skilled Craft class) to find the most comparable skill level. It should be noted that in the Statewide Classification and Pay Schedule, there are 25 grades, or skill levels, but only 21 of them are in use. Approximately 1,550 classes are distributed across these 21 grades. As shown on the list above, several different occupational groups may be represented in the same grade.

Male/Female Dominant Classes

For this study, a class is determined to be either female dominant or male dominant if it includes at least five positions, and 70% of the incumbents are the same sex.

Data indicates that within most occupational groups, except for the Clerical group where they dominate all classes, females -- if they are dominant in any classes -- are dominant in the lower-graded classes, while males are more apt to dominate the higher-graded classes. The following chart compares the number of female-dominant and male-dominant classes by grade.

Number of Male/Female Dominant Classes at Each Grade



Men and women in Montana state government tend toward traditional roles in employment, with women occupying more "helping" types of positions (secretary, nurse, social worker, home attendant, and counselor) while males occupy more positions involving mathematics, manipulation of objects, and physical strength (engineer, programmer/analyst, forester, truck driver, maintenance worker.)

Paula England,[5] in discussing occupational sex segregation, observes that sex role socialization influences the kind of work dominated by either sex. "Female socialization," states England, "encourages (1) nurturant and helping orientations and (2) acceptance of responsibility for housework and child care and discourages (3) authoritativeness or aggressiveness, (4) quantitative or mechanical performance, and (5) physical strength."

Appendix A lists some of the classes in each occupational category that are dominated by either gender. This list seems to substantiate the observations made by England. If females accept more responsibility for housework and child care, they may be reluctant to pursue careers that require considerable travel (Reclamation Specialist, Deputy Fire Marshall, Lottery Marketing Representative). If females are discouraged from exhibiting authoritativeness or aggressiveness, they may not seek careers in law enforcement (Highway Patrol Officer, Fish and Game Warden, Correctional Officer) and may not compete effectively for managerial positions (Administrators/Officials occupations).

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[5] Paula England, "Socioeconomic Explanations of Job Segregation," Comparable Worth and Wage Discrimination, op. cit. p. 29.

From adolescence on, males tend to score higher on tests of quantitative ability and mechanical performance. Whether this is the result of differences between the sexes or is a result of differential treatment in education, this ability manifests itself in male dominance of classes that require advanced mathematical skills (Environmental Specialist, Programmer/Analyst, Civil Engineer).[6] Finally, most positions requiring physical strength or manipulation of objects are male dominant (Laborer, Maintenance Worker, Truck Driver).

The challenge of comparable worth is to ensure that those skills that are inherent in male-dominant classes aren't valued higher simply because they are characteristic of males -- and that skills that are inherent in female-dominant classes aren't undervalued simply because they are characteristic of females.

This requires that the "yardstick" (or job evaluation methodology) an organization uses to measure the worth of its jobs be free of gender bias. Montana's job evaluation methodology compares positions to one another in terms of these five factors: (1) Nature of Work (complexity, variety, working conditions, hazards); (2) Supervision Received through guidelines or control by supervisor; (3) Management and Supervision of Others; (4) Personal Contacts; and (5) Scope and Effect of Actions and Decisions. These factors in themselves contain no gender bias.

Comparable worth also requires that the "yardstick" be applied with equity to all occupational groups. Montana's job evaluation methodology provides for cross-occupational comparisons and uses the same five factors to do this. All-in-all, the positions covered under the Statewide Classification Pay Schedule should closely approximate a standard of comparable worth.

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[6] Ibid. p. 32

Table 3 on the next page is a closer analysis of the wage gap comparing what employees would make, if they were evenly represented in each grade level in each category (as shown in Table 2), to what they actually earn, based on more in-depth job analysis.

Females, according to Table 3, would earn 53% of the total salaries for Technicians, if all Technician jobs were comparable in the five factors, because they hold 53% of the Technicians jobs. In fact, however, they earn 50% of the total salary because they hold a disproportionate share of the less difficult, lower-graded positions within that occupational group. For example, the largest female-dominant class (100+ positions) in the Technicians category is "Eligibility Technician II" at grade 11. The largest male dominant class in the category (100+ positions) is "Engineering Technician III" which is two grades higher because the work is more difficult and responsible in each of the five factors.

If all Professional jobs were at the same level of difficulty and responsibility, females would receive 38% of the total salaries paid to that occupational group. In fact, they earn 37% because, while they dominate some of the lower-graded professional classes, most higher-graded classes are either mixed or male-dominant.

Summary

If all occupations required the same degree of skill and involved the same responsibilities, and a wage gap still existed between male and female salaries, discriminatory pay practices would be obvious. But the fact is, some occupations are more difficult, and for that reason, are paid more. Without a single point-factoring evaluation device to assess comparability among jobs, proving that the same relationship exists between the content of jobs and the pay the incumbents receive for both males and females is difficult.

It has been shown that based only on the fact that males and females are unevenly distributed among occupations, a 14% wage gap exists. The classification process, which assigns individual positions to pay grades, is based on a much more in-depth analysis of job content. If each of these classification actions is correct, a 19% wage gap exists because of differences in the difficulty of jobs held by males and females. The classification system itself is essentially bias-free. However, because of isolated incidents of misclassification and because of past practices which at one

TABLE 3

Actual Portioning** of Salaries Based on Classification Within Occupational Category as Compared to Hypothetical Portioning* Based Only on Occupation.

Statewide Classification and Pay Schedule
(excluding University System)

Occupational Category	1 Total # Employees	2 Total $ Paid	3 Percent Female	4 Female Share of $	5 Percent Male	6 Male Share of $
Administrators/Officials	639	19,181,994	18%	3,452,759	82%	15,729,235
			17%	**3,261,444**	**83%**	**15,920,550**
Professionals	2,656	59,186,082	38%	22,490,711	62%	36,695,371
			37%	**21,770,008**	**63%**	**37,416,074**
Technicians	1,738	31,546,417	53%	16,719,601	47%	14,826,816
			50%	**15,639,113**	**50%**	**15,907,304**
Protective Service	590	10,896,629	10%	1,089,663	90%	9,806,966
			9%	**1,027,000**	**91%**	**9,869,629**
Skilled Craft	72	1,400,953	22%	308,210	78%	1,092,743
			20%	**279,381**	**80%**	**1,121,572**
Paraprofessionals	627	9,093,503	60%	5,456,102	40%	3,637,401
			60%	**5,428,309**	**40%**	**3,665,194**
Clericals	1,122	16,014,106	92%	14,732,978	8%	1,281,128
			92%	**14,745,237**	**8%**	**1,268,869**
Service/Maintenance	351	5,099,910	36%	1,835,968	64%	3,263,942
			34%	**1,711,876**	**66%**	**3,388,034**
	7,795	152,419,594	(# female) (3,668)	**63,862,368**	(# Male) (4,127)	**88,557,226**

average female salary = 17,411

average male salary = 21,458

Female salary as % of male salary = 81%

Wage Gap = 19%
3
22%

* Hypothetical figures are in normal type.

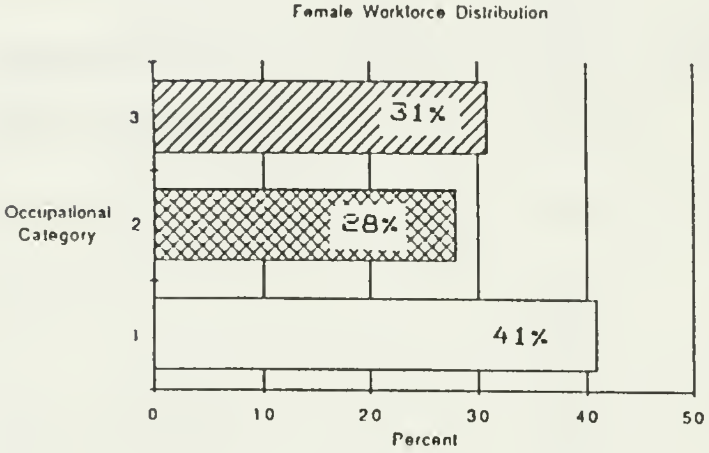
** **Actual figures are in bold.**

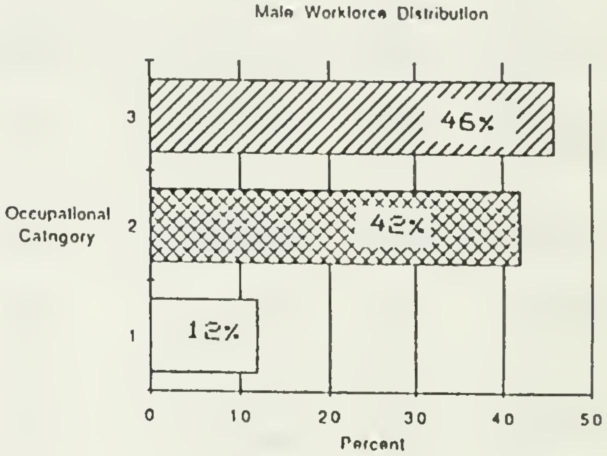
time allowed negotiation of grades, some inequities in its application may exist and could affect the wage gap.

PART 2: CLOSING THE WAGE GAP

The Effects of Sex Segregation

A wage gap will exist as long as sex segregation in occupations remains. The graphs below illustrate the fact that females are crowded into comparatively lower-skill occupations while males are more heavily represented in the higher-skill, higher-paying occupations.





KEY:

□ 1 - Service/Maintenance, Clerical, and Paraprofessional occupations. Education and training required for entry to these occupations is available in the public schools at the high school level or below.

▩ 2 - Protective Service, Craft, and Technician occupations. These require more specialized knowledges and skills, typically acquired through some post-secondary education or apprenticeship, or extensive on-the-job training.

▨ 3 - Professional and Administrators/Officials occupations. A college education is required for entry to most of these occupations. Administrators/Officials may, instead, require extensive work experience.

To remove the effects of sex segregation, 3,220 employees would have to change occupations. Females are, in fact, steadily gaining representation in some of the higher-skill, higher-pay occupations. Table 4 on the following page lists total numbers of employees in each occupational group for FY85, FY87, and FY89. It shows that females have increased in percentage of population in these categories: Administrators/Officials, Professionals, Skilled Craft, Protective Services, and Service/Maintenance, while males have increased in Paraprofessional classes.

The Effects of Differences in Education and Training

The graphs on the preceding page illustrate that 41% of female employees are in occupations that require no formal education beyond the high school level, while only 9% of male employees are in these occupations.

According to a publication by the Department of Labor and Industry, the 1980 census indicated that of persons aged 25 and over, more of Montana's females (75.9%) than males (72.8%) had completed high school. More males (20.1%) than females (14.9%) had completed four or more years of college. The report did not include information regarding other post-secondary training completed by either sex, but this data could be important in terms of the relatively greater numbers of males in Skilled Craft and Protective Service occupations. If there are no differences in education and experience to explain why females are concentrated into lower-skill, lower-pay jobs, the question is whether this is the result of discrimination or choice. Thus a portion of the wage gap could be caused by inequities in the quality of jobs made available to women.

A discussion of discrimination in hiring, promoting, and other placement actions is beyond the scope of the comparable worth report, however. The existence of sex segregation in state government is more appropriately addressed through Equal Employment Opportunity studies and Affirmative Action Plans. The State Personnel Division does operate an affirmative action program in which the goal is to eliminate deliberate and/or unintentional discrimination in recruitment, selection, training, performance appraisal and employee assistance. A complete discussion of this program is found in annual EEO/AA reports to the Governor. The most recent report available is for the period July 1, 1987, to June 30, 1988.

Comparable worth requires equal pay for work of equal value. The gender of the employees who perform the work is not at issue, except where it can be shown that the work performed by one is valued differently than the work performed by the other.

R9.CW2-CLASS

TABLE 4

Employee Distribution* By Occupational Category
Comparing FY 85, FY 87, and FY 89

Occupational Category	**MALE**						**FEMALE**					
	Number of Employees			Percent of Jobs Held in Category			Number of Employees			Percent of Jobs Held in Category		
	FY85	FY87	FY89	1985	1986	1988	FY85	FY87	FY89	1985	1986	1988
Administrators/ Officials	388	386	523	84%	83%	82%	72	79	116	16%	17%	18%
Professionals	1,799	1,800	1,637	67%	64%	62%	893	997	1,019	33%	36%	38%
Technicians	872	840	818	49%	48%	47%	898	904	920	51%	52%	53%
Protective Service	476	513	530	93%	92%	90%	36	43	60	7%	8%	10%
Skilled Craft	50	42	56	86%	86%	78%	8	7	16	14%	14%	22%
Paraprofessionals	289	293	248	36%	39%	40%	511	468	379	64%	61%	60%
Clerical	94	90	91	7%	8%	8%	1,259	1,104	1,031	93%	92%	92%
Service/Maintenance	195	183	224	76%	73%	64%	63	67	127	24%	27%	36%
TOTALS	4,163	4,147	4,127				3,740	3,669	3,668			

* Statewide Classification Pay Schedule Permanent Full-Time Employees (Excluding University System).

R9.T4-CLASS

Classification System Enhancements

In the two years following the 1987 Report to the Legislature on Comparable Worth, maintenance of the Statewide Classification and Pay Schedule required reevaluation of several female-dominant classes. As a result, some were assigned to higher grades.

Among the major class reviews conducted in 1987 - 1988 were Assessing Clerks and Appraisal Clerks. As a result of some reorganization in the county offices, duties of both classes were combined. This resulted in upgrades for approximately 120 clerical positions.

Nurse Aides, Psychiatric Aides, and Habilitation Aides classes were reviewed and combined into a new series that more accurately reflects the current work assignments and educational and experience requirements. Implementation of this new series will also result in upgrading some classes that are female-dominant.

Another major review, that of the Social Worker class series, resulted in adding a new class at a higher grade level to recognize the increased difficulty of protective services casework. Approximately 170 positions, again in a female-dominant class, will be upgraded as a result of this review.

Class reviews are conducted to maintain a current and adequate classification system. During class reviews, cross-occupational comparisons are made to ensure that the same criteria are applied to all classes, regardless of the gender of the incumbents. This well-established practice has enabled Montana to approach comparable worth among the 92% of all positions whose base pay is determined by job content.

Comparable Worth in Montana Compared to Other States

Salary information from other states, elicited in the 1988 biennial salary survey conducted by the State Personnel Division, indicates that female-dominant classes in Montana state government fare better in comparison to comparable male-dominant classes than in other states. This is illustrated below:

In Montana, Engineering Technician III (a male-dominant class) and Professional Nurse II (a female-dominant class) are both at grade 13 with a monthly salary range from $1,507 to $2,096. These surveyed states provide a higher salary range for the Engineering Technician III than for the

Professional Nurse II: Idaho, Wyoming, Arizona, and Minnesota. North Dakota pays the Professional Nurse II more than the Engineering Technician III.

In Montana, Programmer/Analyst III (a male-dominant class) and Psychiatric Nurse Supervisor (a female-dominant class) are both at grade 15 with a monthly salary range of $1,792 to $2,485. These surveyed states provide a higher salary range for the Programmer/Analyst III than for the Psychiatric Nurse Supervisor: Wyoming and Utah. These states provide a higher salary range for the Psychiatric Nurse Supervisor: New Mexico, and Arizona. North Dakota, like Montana, places them in the same salary range.

In Montana, Right-of-Way Agent II (a male-dominant class) and Personnel Technician II (a female-dominant class) are both at grade 11 with a monthly salary range of $1,294 to $1,806. These states provide a higher salary range for the Right-of-Way Agent II than for the Personnel Technician II. North Dakota, Utah, New Mexico, Arizona, Wyoming, Minnesota, and Idaho. Montana is the only state that rewards the female-dominant class equally.

Minnesota has completed implementation of incremental pay adjustments for approximately 150 job classes, mostly clerical and health care workers. Some pay equity adjustments have been made in New Mexico involving 23 female-dominant classes. North Dakota and Wyoming have conducted pay equity studies, but have not implemented the results. Arizona, Utah, and Colorado have conducted some pay equity research, but have not completed a study of comparative salaries.

PART 3: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The difference in average earnings between male and female state government employees is approximately 22%. This difference -- the wage gap -- is narrowing as a result of changes in the numbers and kinds of jobs male and female employees hold.

Components of the wage gap can be summarized as follows:

3%	longevity pay differences
19%	job content differences (if all evaluations were consistent and correct)
22%	wage gap

Recognizing the possibility that some of the classified positions may be graded incorrectly, all of the 19% shown may not be valid differences in job content. It may be that some of the wage gap attributed to job content differences is, at this point in time, unexplainable.

In addition to the need for a better job evaluation methodology -- one that is technically more efficient, objective, and easily understood -- impediments to achieving a standard of comparable worth continue to be the existence of separate pay plans and the fact that the relationship between job content and pay is not the same for all employees. Employees paid under the Blue Collar Plan and the Retail Clerks Plan generally receive higher pay than those in comparable jobs paid under the Statewide Classification Pay Schedule.

APPENDIX A

SAMPLE FEMALE/MALE DOMINANT CLASSES

Female-Dominant Classes:

(1) Administrators/Officials

There are no female-dominant classes in this category.

(2) Professionals

grade 15	Psychiatric Nurse Supervisor
	Economic Assistance County Supervisor
grade 14	Professional Nurse III
	Psychiatric Nurse II
	Health Care Facility Surveyor
grade 13	Microbiologist III
	Professional Nurse II
	Psychiatric Nurse I
	Family Resource Specialist
grade 12	Employment Counselor I
	Professional Nurse I
	Accounting Specialist II
	Social Worker II

(3) Technicians

grade 11	Licensed Practical Nurse II
grade 10	Licensed Practical Nurse I
	Accounting Technician II
	Computer Operation Technician II
grade 9	Statistical Technician I
	Audit Technician I
	Payroll Technician
	Word Processing Technician

(4) Protective Services

There are no female dominant classes in this occupational category.

(5) Paraprofessional

grade 8	Psychiatric Aide II
	Nurse Aide II
	Employment Assistant
grade 7	Home Attendant
	Nurse Aide I
	Psychiatric Aide I

(6) Clerical

Females dominate all clerical classes with more than five positions except Mail Clerk I, II, and III; File Clerk II; Stock Clerk II; and Property Tax Clerk I and II.

(7) Skilled Craft

There are no female dominant classes in this occupational category.

(8) Service/Maintenance

grade 7	Cook I
grade 6	Food Service Worker II
	Laundry Worker I

Male Dominant Classes

(1) Administrators/Officials

grade 18 - 22	Career Executive Assignment (Most division administrator and comparable level positions are classified in this series.)
grade 18	Civil Engineer Manager II
	Treatment Unit Supervisor
	Field Maintenance Bureau Chief
grade 17	Resource Program Manager II
	Accounting/Fiscal Services Manager III
	Enforcement Program Manager
grade 16	Fish and Game Warden Captain
	Human Services Manager I

(2) Professionals

grade 18 - 19	Lawyer IV and Lawyer V
grade 15	Civil Engineering Specialist IV
	Programmer/Analyst III
	Fisheries/Wildlife Program Specialist
	Public Health Sanitation Consultant
	Deputy State Fire Marshall II
grade 14	Traffic Engineer II
	Reclamation Specialist II
	Cottage Supervisor
grade 13	Forester III
	Environmental Specialist II
	Lottery Marketing Representative I
	Correctional Treatment Specialist

(3) Technicians

grade 13	Engineering Technician III
	Designer II
grade 12	Motor Vehicle Safety Inspector II
	Appraiser III
grade 11	Materials Lab Technician III
	Weights/Measures Inspector II
	Field Technician II
grade 10	Design Technician I
	Water Rights Technician
grade 9	Drafter

(4) Protective Service

grade 14	Highway Patrol Officer II
	Fish and Game Warden III
grade 13	Highway Patrol Officer I
	Fish and Game Warden II
grade 11	GVW Enforcement Officer I
grade 10	Correctional Officer II
grade 6	Security Guard II

(5) Paraprofessional

grade 9	Special Duty Aide I
grade 8	Research Aide II

(6) Clerical

grade 7+	Stockman with Terminal

(7) Skilled Craft

grade 12+	Plumber
grade 11+	Field Maintenance Supervisor A
grade 10+	Machinist/Mechanic
grade 9+	Equipment Operator II

(8) Service/Maintenance

grade 12	Maintenance Supervisor I
grade 9	Maintenance Worker II
grade 6	Laborer II

Grades marked (+) indicate that the class is paid according to the Blue Collar Pay Schedule, rather than the Statewide Classification and Pay Plan.

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